

2

3 **Near-complete loss of fire-resistant primary tropical forest cover in**

4 **Sumatra and Kalimantan**

5

6 Tadas Nikonovas¹, Allan Spessa¹, Stefan H. Doerr¹, Gareth D. Clay² & Symon Mezbahuddin³

7

8 **Author affiliations**

9 1. Department of Geography, Swansea University, Singleton Park, Swansea, SA2 8PP, UK

10

11 2. Department of Geography, School of Environment, Education and Development, University of

12 Manchester, Oxford Road, Manchester, M13 9PL, UK

13

14 3. Department of Renewable Resources, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta, T6G 2E3, Canada

15

16

17

18

19 **Abstract**

20

21 Deforestation in Indonesia in recent decades has made increasingly large parts of the region

22 vulnerable to fires. Burning is particularly widespread in deforested peatlands, and it leads to globally

23 significant carbon emissions. Here we use satellite-based observations to assess loss and

24 fragmentation of primary forests and associated changes in fire regimes in Sumatra and Kalimantan

25 between 2001 and 2019. We find that fires did not penetrate undisturbed primary forest areas deeper

26 than two kilometres from the forest edge irrespective of drought conditions. However, fire-resistant

27 forest now covers only 3% of peatlands and 4.5% of non-peatlands; the majority of the remaining

28 primary forests are severely fragmented or degraded due to proximity to the forest edge. We conclude

29 that protection and regeneration of the remaining blocks of contiguous primary forest, as well as

30 peatland restoration, are urgently needed to mitigate the impacts of potentially more frequent fire
31 events under future global warming.

32 **Introduction**

33

34 The rates of commodity-driven loss and degradation of primary forests in Indonesia^{1,2} have been
35 among the highest in the world over the past five decades^{3,4}. The islands of Sumatra and Kalimantan,
36 home to the majority of Indonesia's carbon-rich peatlands, have been particularly affected^{5,6,7}. One of
37 the consequences of this rapid change in land use and cover has been a dramatic increase in fire
38 occurrence. In recent decades, the region has experienced recurring extreme peatland burning
39 episodes, most notably the 1997 – 1998⁸ and 2015⁹ events. These were globally significant greenhouse
40 gas emission events and resulted in extended toxic haze episodes with severe effects on human health
41 and the economy on local and regional scales^{10,11}. The two interlinked phenomena of deforestation
42 and peatland fires accounted for half (~0.7 Gt of carbon) of the total annual carbon emissions in
43 Indonesia in the 21st century and pose a challenge for the commitment of the Indonesian government
44 to reduce emissions by at least 29% by 2030¹². It is widely accepted that the ongoing tropical forest
45 loss is exacerbating this challenge, because deforested land in this region is much more fire-
46 prone^{13,14,15}. However, a region-wide assessment of the ability of remaining primary forest to resist
47 fire is currently lacking.

48

49 Fire is a rare phenomenon in intact tropical forest ecosystems^{13,16}. Closed-canopy tropical forests limit
50 the amount of solar radiation reaching the ground, maintain high humidity in the understorey, and
51 lower temperatures by evaporative cooling on local scales^{17,18}. Importantly, tropical forests are able to
52 sustain elevated humidity during prolonged droughts¹⁹ and, as result, act as a protective layer
53 shielding the landscape from the impacts of regional climate variability. While fires episodically did
54 occur in Sumatra and Kalimantan during the Holocene^{20,21}, they were infrequent and did not cause a
55 long-term loss in the forest vegetation, which covered the majority of the region at least since the end
56 of the Last Glacial Maximum^{16,3}.

57

58 Forest cover has played a particularly important role in the region's peatlands. An estimated 16 to 33
59 Gt^{20,22} of carbon – equivalent to 2 to 4 years' worth of contemporary global fossil fuel emissions –
60 have accumulated in the region's peatlands since the Last Glacial Maximum, forming a peat layer up to
61 20 metres deep²³. These peatlands have been a persistent carbon sink for at least the last 20,000
62 years²⁴, and in the late Holocene the region has been the most effective carbon sink on a unit area
63 basis globally²⁰. Throughout this time, forests were very effective at preventing this important carbon
64 pool from being released into the atmosphere by fires through its regulating effect on climate at local
65 and regional scales.

66
67 Reduction in tree canopy cover has a large effect on local and regional climate, and on surface energy
68 balance²⁵. Deforested landscapes in Sumatra and Kalimantan have a drier microclimate, experience
69 more extreme temperature events and are substantially warmer^{26,27}. Air temperature in selectively
70 logged forests and oil palm plantations is on average up to 2.5 °C and 6.5 °C higher when compared to
71 nearby undisturbed forests, respectively²⁸. In peatlands, increased amounts of solar radiation due to
72 reduced shading affects hydrology and accelerates desiccation and heating of near-surface peat²⁹,
73 which has low thermal capacity and can be heated rapidly when dry. The increased fire risk is also
74 exacerbated by widespread use of peatland drainage³⁰, and the establishment of herbaceous and
75 easily flammable vegetation in unmanaged land following forest clearing and recurrent burning³¹.

76
77 The effects of deforestation on susceptibility to fire are not limited to cleared land, but may extend up
78 to several kilometres into adjacent undisturbed forests^{32,33}. The resulting edge effects include
79 increased tree mortality³⁴, lowered tree reproduction rates³⁵, and lower biomass when compared to
80 intact forests^{36,37}. The fire risk at the forest edges is elevated by canopy desiccation³⁸, increased
81 temperature and wind³⁹. Furthermore, in peatlands, artificial drainage can lower the water table up to
82 2 km into neighbouring peat swamp forest increasing peat ignitability^{40,41}.

83
84 All the above factors, when coupled with extensive use of fire in human activities⁴², result in
85 widespread burning on the converted land during dry periods^{43,44,45}, which across the region are
86 influenced by an intricate interplay of large scale interannual climate variability modes. In south

Sumatra and south Kalimantan, prolonged dry periods primarily occur during positive El Nino phase^{45,51}, while positive Indian Ocean dipole (IOD) phase events have a greater influence on length and severity of dry season in north and central Sumatra⁴⁶. The most severe drought episodes, like the 1997 – 98 event, occurred when both El Ninio and IOD were strongly positive. The region's peatlands are particularly affected, with many areas experiencing recurrent burning during the last three decades^{31,47}. Repeated burning and oxidation of carbon due to drainage have therefore resulted in the region's peatlands converting from carbon sinks to sources⁴⁸.

While the ongoing primary forest loss^{6,4} and associated increase in fire occurrence^{49,50,51,5,14,52} in Sumatra and Kalimantan have been highlighted previously, there are no region-wide assessments of the magnitude to which the region has been stripped of the drought and attendant fire protection that primary forests used to provide. Here we present an assessment of loss and fragmentation of primary forest cover combined with fire detections in peatland and non-peatland areas of Sumatra and Kalimantan within the last two decades (2001-2019), in order to identify trends and thresholds relevant to functioning of forests as a fire barrier and protection of peatland carbon stocks in the region. We find that undisturbed primary forest areas located at least 2 km from the forest edge are extremely resilient to fire, but only a small fraction of primary forests remain in this category. As a result, the magnitude of forest degradation and associated increase in high fire risk area is far greater than what the total extent of the remaining primary forests in the region would suggest.

Results and Discussion

Changes in total primary forest extent

Primary forest cover in the Indonesian islands of Sumatra and Kalimantan (Fig. 1), both in the region's peatlands and non-peatlands reduced dramatically in extent between 2001 and 2019 (Fig. 2). At the beginning of year 2001, primary forests covered 45 Mha of the region's total area of 101.5 Mha, whereas at the end of 2018 the cover comprised only 37 Mha. This change equates to average annual primary forest loss of 0.43 Mha. Over half of the total loss occurred in non-peatlands, where primary

116 forest extent was reduced from 39 Mha in 2000 to 33.6 Mha in 2019 (Fig. 2c). Relative change was
117 much larger in peatlands, which cover approximately 11.4 Mha (11%) of the region⁵³, (Methods). In
118 the year 2000, primary forests covered ~6 Mha or 53% of peatlands. By the end of 2018 the extent
119 was reduced to 3.4 Mha (30% of the area) (Fig. 2b).

120

121 During the study period, primary forest loss increased during the first half of the record, peaked in
122 2012, and gradually decreased afterwards. Notably, during the last two years in the record (2017 and
123 2018) deforestation has fallen to levels not seen since the 2001 – 2003 period (Fig. 2a). The overall
124 reduction is primarily attributable to a large drop in primary forest loss in peatlands. This may be a
125 sign that the policy changes and incentives in Indonesia such as the peatland restoration plan and
126 moratoriums on primary forest clearing for oil palm plantations and logging operations⁶⁵ have begun
127 to improve the situation^{66,54}. As a result of this, Indonesia and Norway have agreed on a first payment
128 as part of the Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation (REDD+) program⁵⁵.

129

130 **Forest fragmentation**

131

132 While estimates of total primary forest cover indicate a large reduction over the study period, these
133 figures do not reveal the magnitude of degradation to structural integrity of the remaining forests. Our
134 analysis of primary forest percent cover at 1 km resolution illustrates that the ecosystem is
135 increasingly fragmented. The number of 1 km grid cells representing undisturbed primary forests,
136 defined here as grid cells having primary forest cover of 99% or more, has reduced dramatically over
137 the years (Fig. 3). The decrease was particularly strong in peatlands, where the area covered by
138 undisturbed primary forest grid cells has reduced from approximately 32% of peatlands in 2000 to
139 16% at the end of 2018. Critically, this result shows that at the end of 2018 almost half of the
140 remaining primary forests in peatlands were distributed either as small fragments and/or located
141 close to the forest edge. A particularly large increase was recorded in area covered by mostly-
142 deforested grid cells (50% to 1% cover), both in peatlands and non-peatlands. These dramatic changes
143 have wide-ranging implications for biodiversity^{56,57}, carbon storage³⁷ and, indeed, fire occurrence in
144 the region, as demonstrated below.

145

146 **Primary forest cover and fire occurrence**

147

148 When estimated for different primary forest cover percentage categories (Fig. 3), the fire-affected area
149 (defined here as % of 1 km grid cells with active fire detections (see Methods)) was notably larger for
150 areas with reduced or completely lost primary forest cover compared with relatively undisturbed
151 closed-canopy forests. In the region's peatlands, fire affected on average only 0.9% of grid cells in
152 undisturbed primary forest category, but 6.2% of partially deforested, 11% of mostly deforested, and
153 8.3% of completely deforested grid cells each year. In non-peatland areas, only 0.09% of undisturbed
154 forest grid cells experienced fire each year, while fires were present in 1.3%, 3.3%, and 2.1% of the
155 grid cells representing partially, mostly, and completely deforested areas, respectively. In drought
156 years, as much as 22% and 8% of the area was fire-affected in the most vulnerable, mostly, and
157 completely deforested categories in peatlands and non-peatlands, respectively. Meanwhile, in
158 undisturbed forests the highest fire-affected area was 3% in peatlands and only 0.23% in non-
159 peatlands (Fig. 3).

160

161 These results illustrate that once the microclimate regulation of the closed-canopy primary forests is
162 lost, the many anthropogenic ignitions in the region⁴² often develop into persistent and large burning
163 events during dry periods. The highest fire-affected area on mostly deforested land estimated in this
164 study can be attributed to extensive use of fire as a tool for clearing the land for agriculture in the
165 region^{5,58,66}. The tool is very effective because highly fragmented and degraded patches of primary
166 forests contain dead woody fuel and exhibit little ignition-resistance³³ and as a result are easily ignited
167 and consumed by both intentional burning or escaped fires.

168

169 Our results indicate that there is a long-lasting increase in fire risk in the deforested landscapes,
170 extending beyond the immediate deforestation period. While areas with fragments of primary forests
171 (between 50% to 1% cover) had the highest percentage of fire-affected grid cells, fire occurrences
172 were nearly as high in land which has been completely deforested (less than 1% primary forest cover
173 (Fig.3)). Although deforestation fires are reduced once the land is fully cleared of primary forests, fire

174 is still used in agricultural practices and as a means to prevent secondary regrowth^{58,52}. Degraded and
175 unmanaged peatlands in this region have therefore short fire return intervals and as a result such
176 areas become dominated by flammable grasses and ferns and effectively switch to a stable treeless
177 state^{31,14}. While in some managed land cover types, such as large scale oil palm and pulp plantations
178 fire may be undesirable and is actively suppressed, such areas nonetheless have higher fire occurrence
179 rates when compared to primary forests¹⁵.

180 Overall, the percentage of fire-affected grid cells in peatlands estimated in this study was on average
181 4.3 times higher when compared with non-peatlands. This signifies the vulnerability of deforested
182 tropical peatland's carbon pool to fire emissions. In peatlands, the fire problem is exacerbated by
183 drainage and desiccation of surface peat which makes it highly combustible^{14,47}. Once ignited, the peat
184 layer can sustain underground smouldering combustion for weeks and even months and spread over
185 large area. As a result, the region's peatlands, while representing only 11% of the area, are the source
186 of the majority of smoke emissions during the extreme fire episodes⁵⁹.

187
188 The increase in fire-prone area over the study years presented in Fig. 3 elucidates how the ongoing
189 primary forest loss has amplified the burning episodes over time. Figure 4, which shows changes in
190 primary forest cover and fire-affected area only for the grid cells which were 99% forested at the
191 beginning of 2002, illustrates this point further. During the study period, half of undisturbed and
192 hence fire-resilient primary forests have been affected by deforestation and transitioned to fire-prone
193 landscapes (Fig. 4b). Although in non-peatlands (Fig. 4c) loss of undisturbed forests since 2001 was
194 smaller in relative terms, the effect was the same – more than a ten-fold increase in the percentage of
195 fire-affected grid cells in areas affected by deforestation. The same pattern was observed across
196 different sub-regions of Sumatra and Kalimantan (Supplementary Figures 1 – 4). The land which has
197 become fire-prone contributed considerably towards the magnitude of the two most recent large fire
198 episodes in the record. Indeed, 15% of total fire-affected area during the 2015 episode did occur on
199 land which experienced deforestation since the year 2002, while the respective figure for the 2019
200 event is 17%.

201
202 While fires overall were rare in grid cells with primary forest cover of more than 99%, they were
203 nonetheless present in undisturbed primary forests, in particular during the years with negative

204 monthly precipitation anomalies (Fig 3a). The analysis of grid cell distance from the forest edge and
205 fire occurrence during the study period (Fig. 4) shows that primary forest grid cells located at the
206 forest edge were much more likely to be affected by fire, and that the vast majority of burning did
207 occur within the first 2 km from the forest edge. While approximately half of the remaining
208 undisturbed forests were located within 1 km from the forest edge, they accounted for 94% and 97%
209 of all fire-affected grid cells in peatlands and non-peatlands respectively. The grid cells located
210 between 1 and 2 km from the edge accounted for further 6% and 3% of the total fire-affected area.
211 Notably, undisturbed primary forests located further from the forest edge than 2 km accounted for
212 less than 1% of total fire-affected area within the forests both in peatlands and non-peatlands, with
213 only a few grid cells experiencing burning during the study period. This demonstrates that the small
214 amount of burning observed in the region's primary forests^{51,15} was occurring within the first 2 km
215 from the forest edge, while the inner regions remained virtually fire-free.

216

217 A near-absence of burning in the interior of the undisturbed primary forests yet again signifies how
218 resilient to fire this ecosystem is and the role it plays in protecting millennia-aged peat carbon from
219 combustion. The fact that this vanishingly small proportion of the remaining undisturbed forests did
220 not ignite or permit persistent fires to burn into the inner regions (Fig. 4), indicates that in the 21st
221 century these forests were effectively decoupled from the impacts of regional climate variability on
222 fire occurrence. The close association between climate and fire in the region^{50,43,45,60} does not seem to
223 apply to primary forests which remain undisturbed and are not compromised by exposure to the edge
224 effects. Extremely low numbers of fire-affected grid cells in such forests recorded during the study
225 period suggests a very long fire return interval. This indicates that in the 21st century, as throughout
226 the Holocene^{20,21}, fire was not the main driver of deforestation in Sumatra and Kalimantan.

227

228 Notably, Fig. 4 also shows that at the end of 2018, undisturbed primary forests located further than 2
229 km from the edge comprised only ~3% of the region's peatlands and ~4.5% of non-peatlands area.
230 Critically, up to 84% of the peatlands was under high fire risk (less than 99% primary forest cover, Fig.
231 3b) and an additional 13% was under increased fire risk (undisturbed primary forests within 2 km from
232 forest edge, Fig. 4b). This result also means that only 10% of the remaining primary forests in
233 peatlands in the year 2019 were in the 'resilient to fire' group, while the remaining 90% were either

234 severely fragmented or degraded by the edge effects. During the study years, maximum distance from
235 the forest edge reduced from 11 to 8 km in peatlands, and from 19 to 14 in non-peatlands. The pace
236 of disappearance of the forests which are not exposed to the edge effects in the region may mean that
237 the first two decades of the 21st century provides the last opportunity to obtain satellite-based
238 estimates of fire occurrence in undisturbed primary forests in Sumatra and Kalimantan.

239

240 The results demonstrate that the ongoing primary forest clearance in the region has led to substantial
241 growth in the extent of the high fire-risk area, and in the region's carbon-rich peatlands in particular.
242 While forest loss rates in peatlands and associated fires have been relatively low since 2017, we
243 estimate that only a small fraction of the remaining total area of primary forests in the region still
244 function (as they were throughout the Holocene) as a 'layer' that protects the underlying peat from
245 combustion. Of the peatlands in Sumatra and Kalimantan, 97% have now transitioned from being fire-
246 resilient to flammable due to a combination of widespread fragmentation, drainage and the
247 replacement of fire-sensitive rainforest trees with pyrophillic invasive plant species such as ferns and
248 grasses, with severe consequences for local communities, biodiversity, regional air quality and global
249 climate.

250

251 **Methods**

252

253 **Primary forest loss and extent**

254

255 In this study, primary forest extent in region for the year 2000 was determined from the primary forest
256 cover dataset based on multi-temporal analysis of Landsat imagery^{6,61}. In this product, all Landsat
257 pixels (~25 m x 25 m) with tree height of at least 5 m and canopy cover of > 30% were considered as
258 forest, and primary forest was defined as old-growth natural forest forming a contiguous block of at
259 least 5 ha and which has not been deforested in recent history, including both intact and degraded
260 types⁶¹. The product was shown to have 90.2% overall agreement (80% Kappa statistic) when
261 compared to the primary forest map for the year 2000 of Ministry of Forestry of Indonesia⁶. In order
262 to determine loss in primary forest cover in Sumatra and Kalimantan during the study period, we

263 performed a co-located analysis of the primary forest cover of the year 2000 data⁶ and a subset of the
264 version 1.6 global annual forest cover loss dataset covering 2001 through 2018⁶². In this product, tree
265 cover loss is defined as a stand replacement disturbance. Validation of tree cover loss for tropical
266 regions suggest that forest loss was correctly identified in more than 80% of the cases (producer's
267 accuracy 83.1%)⁶².

268

269 The analysis of primary forest loss was performed at the Landsat pixel level, replicating and extending
270 in time the study of primary forest loss⁶. Tree cover loss pixels were matched with the primary forest
271 cover dataset pixels to determine if loss was occurring in primary forest or in other tree cover areas.
272 Total primary forest extent for each year was determined by subtracting accumulative primary forest
273 loss leading to the year from primary forest extent in the year 2000. As a result, the derived primary
274 forest cover estimate for a given year represents the state at the beginning of the year. Primary forest
275 loss during that year is accounted for in the estimate for the year after.

276

277 The analysis of relationships between primary forest percentage cover and fire occurrences was
278 performed at 1 km resolution. Individual primary forest 25 m pixels for each year were aggregated to
279 derive per 0.01° grid-cell primary forest percent cover. This study uses four different defined
280 categories of primary forest percent cover. Grid cells were classified into one of four categories:
281 'undisturbed forest' (over 99% primary forest cover); 'partially deforested' (50% < primary forest cover
282 < 99%), 'mostly deforested' (1% < primary forest cover < 50%); and 'fully deforested' (<1% primary
283 forest cover). The 99% primary forest threshold in classifying undisturbed primary forests was used in
284 order to allow for a small number of deforestation to occur within a 1 km grid cell (up to 16 out of
285 1600 25 m Landsat pixels in a 1 km grid cell) before it was reclassified as partially deforested. This was
286 done to accommodate a small amount of natural canopy succession and/or erroneous forest loss
287 pixels. Correspondingly, a 1% primary forest threshold was used in defining fully deforested grid cells.
288 While the selected 99% threshold caused the estimated extent of undisturbed primary forests to be
289 approximately 20% larger when compared to a scenario when a strict 100% threshold was used, this
290 only had a negligible effect on fire occurrence rates for the category. However, lowering the threshold

291 further resulted in a large increase in fire detections in undisturbed primary forests, hence a 99%
292 threshold was used.

293

294

295

296 **Distance to the forest edge**

297

298 Distance to the forest edge was computed for all undisturbed primary forest grid cells (cover >99%).
299 For this purpose, any grid cells with less than 99% primary forest cover were considered to be non-
300 forest. Distances were derived in a way that all primary forest grid cells adjacent to non-forest grid
301 cells (8-connected neighbourhood) were classed as areas within 1 km from the edge.

302 **Fire affected areas**

303

304 As a proxy for fire activity, the study used Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS)
305 Collection 6 fire locations (MCD14ML) dataset, produced by the University of Maryland and provided
306 by NASA Fire Information for Resource Management System. The product contains centre coordinates
307 of MODIS pixels (1 km² for areas directly below, up to ~10 km² in area at the extreme edges of the
308 sensor view) flagged by the MODIS Thermal Anomalies algorithm⁶³. The product has estimated 8%
309 false detection rate for South Asia, and less than 10% omission error for fires of over 0.125 km²
310 globally⁶³. To reduce the commission error further, low confidence (<30%) detections were excluded
311 from the analysis.

312

313 Fire-affected area was used as a proxy for fire activity. Using this approach, any 1 km grid-cells
314 containing any number of active fire detections within any given year were flagged as fire-affected. In
315 order to identify areas affected by large and persistent burning events, single active fire detections
316 which were not part of bigger events were filtered out. This was achieved by agglomerating any
317 individual active fires located closer than 3 km in space and less than 48 hours in time. Following this
318 step, only active fire detections which were part of fire events which were observed on at least two
319 different days were selected for further analysis. This additional filtering step resulted in 12% and 45%
320 reduction in total active fire detections in the region's peatlands and non-peatlands respectively. The

321 difference in reduction indicates that a larger proportion of active fire detections in non-peatlands is a
322 record of small fires which do not develop into persistent burning events. This filtering step also
323 brought the estimate of percentage of total fire-affected area attributable to peatlands up to ~40%,
324 which is in the range of estimates obtained by other studies employing MODIS area-burned products
325 and estimates based on different sensor data⁶⁴.

326

327 **Peatland areas**

328

329 In order to differentiate between peatland and mineral soils (non-peatland) areas the study utilized
330 the high-resolution maps of Indonesian peat distribution and carbon content published by Wetlands
331 International and Wildlife Habitat Canada⁵³. The vector dataset was rasterized to 1 km resolution grid.
332 Rasterization was applied in a way that any grid cells whose centre point was inside the peatlands
333 polygons was considered to represent peatland areas. As a result, the total peatlands extent
334 determined in this study is ~10% smaller than that derived directly from the source dataset.

335

336 **Precipitation anomalies**

337

338 This study used European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) ERA5 0.25° global
339 reanalysis precipitation dataset for deriving monthly precipitation anomalies in the region for the
340 study period. The anomalies shown in figures 3 and 4 represent difference between mean
341 precipitation for all land ERA5 grid cells over Sumatra and Kalimantan for any given month and climatic
342 monthly mean precipitation for the 2002 – 2019 period.

343

344 **Data availability**

345 All datasets used in the study are publicly available. Primary forest cover in year 2000 is available at:
346 <https://glad.umd.edu/dataset/primary-forest-cover-loss-indonesia-2000-2012>. The annual forest loss
347 data available on-line from: <http://earthenginepartners.appspot.com/science-2013-global-forest>.
348 Active fire data can be downloaded from: <https://firms.modaps.eosdis.nasa.gov/download>. Peatland
349 extent maps are available at: <http://data.globalforestwatch.org/datasets>. ERA5 reanalysis dataset can

350 be downloaded from: <https://climate.copernicus.eu/climate-reanalysis>. The annual primary forest %
351 cover and active fire detection counts at 1km resolution datasets generated by this study can be
352 accessed at <http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4199924>.

353 References

- 354 1. Curtis, P.G., Slay, C.M., Harris, N.L., Tyukavina, A. and Hansen, M.C. Classifying drivers of global
355 forest loss. *Science* **361**, 1108-1111 (2018).
- 356 2. Austin, K.G., Schwantes, A., Gu, Y. and Kasibhatla, P.S. What causes deforestation in Indonesia?
357 *Environmental Research Letters* **14**, 024007 (2019).
- 358 3. Tsujino, R., Yumoto, T., Kitamura, S., Djameluddin, I. and Darnaedi, D. History of forest loss and
359 degradation in Indonesia. *Land use policy* **57**, 335-347 (2016).
- 360 4. Turubanova, S., Potapov, P.V., Tyukavina, A. and Hansen, M.C. Ongoing primary forest loss in
361 Brazil, Democratic Republic of the Congo, and Indonesia. *Environmental Research Letters* **13**,
362 074028 (2018).
- 363 5. Miettinen, J., Hooijer, A., Wang, J., Shi, C. and Liew, S.C. Peatland degradation and conversion
364 sequences and interrelations in Sumatra. *Regional Environmental Change* **12**, 729-737 (2012).
- 365 6. Margono, B.A., Potapov, P.V., Turubanova, S., Stolle, F. and Hansen, M.C., 2014. Primary forest
366 cover loss in Indonesia over 2000–2012. *Nature climate change*, **4** 730 (2014).
- 367 7. Stibig, H. J., Achard, F., Carboni, S., Rasi, R. & Miettinen, J. Change in tropical forest cover of
368 Southeast Asia from 1990 to 2010. *Biogeosciences* **11**, 247–258 (2014).
- 369 8. Page, S.E., Siegert, F., Rieley, J.O., Boehm, H.D.V., Jaya, A. and Limin, S. The amount of carbon
370 released from peat and forest fires in Indonesia during 1997. *Nature* **420**, 61-65 (2002).
- 371 9. Huijnen, V., Wooster, M.J., Kaiser, J.W., Gaveau, D.L., Flemming, J., Parrington, M., Inness, A.,
372 Murdiyarso, D., Main, B. and Van Weele, M. Fire carbon emissions over maritime southeast
373 Asia in 2015 largest since 1997. *Scientific reports* **6**, 26886 (2016).
- 374 10. Koplitz, S.N., Mickley, L.J., Marlier, M.E., Buonocore, J.J., Kim, P.S., Liu, T., Sulprizio, M.P.,
375 DeFries, R.S., Jacob, D.J., Schwartz, J. and Pongsiri, M. Public health impacts of the severe haze
376 in Equatorial Asia in September–October 2015: demonstration of a new framework for
377 informing fire management strategies to reduce downwind smoke exposure. *Environmental*
378 *Research Letters* **11**, 094023 (2016).
- 379 11. Crippa, P., Castruccio, S., Archer-Nicholls, S., Lebron, G.B., Kuwata, M., Thota, A., Sumin, S.,
380 Butt, E., Wiedinmyer, C. and Spracklen, D.V. Population exposure to hazardous air quality due
381 to the 2015 fires in Equatorial Asia. *Scientific reports* **6**, 37074 (2016).
- 382 12. Wijaya, A.R., Chrysolite, H.A., Ge, M.E., Wibowo, C., Pradana, A.L., Utami, A. and Austin, K.E.
383 How can Indonesia achieve its climate change mitigation goal? An analysis of potential
384 emissions reductions from energy and land-use policies. *World Resources Institute. World*
385 *Resour. Inst. Work. Pap.*, 1-36 (2017).
- 386 13. Cochrane, M.A. Fire science for rainforests. *Nature* **421**, 913 (2003).

14. Page, S.E. and Hooijer, A. In the line of fire: the peatlands of Southeast Asia. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* **371**, 20150176 (2016).
15. Miettinen, J., Shi, C. and Liew, S.C. Fire distribution in Peninsular Malaysia, Sumatra and Borneo in 2015 with special emphasis on peatland fires. *Environmental management* **60**, 747-757 (2017).
16. Goldammer, J.G. History of equatorial vegetation fires and fire research in Southeast Asia before the 1997–98 episode: a reconstruction of creeping environmental changes. *Mitigation and Adaptation Strategies for Global Change* **12**, 13–32 (2007).
17. Bonan, G.B., 2008. Forests and climate change: forcings, feedbacks, and the climate benefits of forests. *Science* **320**, 1444–1449 (2008).
18. Baker, J. and Spracklen, D. Climate benefits of intact Amazon forests and the biophysical consequences of disturbance. *Frontiers in Forests and Global Change* **2**, 47 (2019).
19. Uhl, C., Kauffman, J.B. and Cummings, D.L. Fire in the Venezuelan Amazon 2: environmental conditions necessary for forest fires in the evergreen rainforest of Venezuela. *Oikos*, 176–184 (1988).
20. Dommain, R., Couwenberg, J., Glaser, P.H., Joosten, H. and Suryadiputra, I.N.N., 2014. Carbon storage and release in Indonesian peatlands since the last deglaciation. *Quaternary Science Reviews* **97**, 1–32 (2014).
21. Cole, L.E.S., Bhagwat, S.A. and Willis, K.J. Fire in the swamp forest: palaeoecological insights into natural and human-induced burning in intact tropical peatlands. *Frontiers in Forests and Global Change* **2**, 48 (2019).
22. Warren, M., Hergoualc’h, K., Kauffman, J.B., Murdiyarso, D. and Kolka, R. An appraisal of Indonesia’s immense peat carbon stock using national peatland maps: uncertainties and potential losses from conversion. *Carbon balance and management* **12**, 12 (2017).
23. Page, S.E., Rieley, J.O. and Banks, C.J. Global and regional importance of the tropical peatland carbon pool. *Global change biology* **17**, 798–818 (2011).
24. Page, S.E., Wüst, R.A.J., Weiss, D., Rieley, J.O., Shotyk, W. and Limin, S.H. A record of Late Pleistocene and Holocene carbon accumulation and climate change from an equatorial peat bog (Kalimantan, Indonesia): implications for past, present and future carbon dynamics. *Journal of Quaternary Science* **19**, 625–635 (2004).
25. Schultz, N.M., Lawrence, P.J. and Lee, X. Global satellite data highlights the diurnal asymmetry of the surface temperature response to deforestation. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Biogeosciences* **122**, 903–917 (2017).
26. Sabajo, C.R., Le Maire, G., June, T., Meijide, A., Roupsard, O. and Knohl, A. Expansion of oil palm and other cash crops causes an increase of the land surface temperature in the Jambi province in Indonesia. *Biogeosciences* **14**, 4619–4635 (2017).

27. McAlpine, C.A., Johnson, A., Salazar, A., Syktus, J., Wilson, K., Meijaard, E., Seabrook, L., Dargusch, P., Nordin, H. and Sheil, D. Forest loss and Borneo's climate. *Environmental Research Letters* **13**, 044009 (2018).
28. Hardwick, S.R., Toumi, R., Pfeifer, M., Turner, E.C., Nilus, R. and Ewers, R.M. The relationship between leaf area index and microclimate in tropical forest and oil palm plantation: Forest disturbance drives changes in microclimate. *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology* **201**, 187-195 (2015).
29. Jauhiainen, J., Kerojoki, O., Silvennoinen, H., Limin, S. and Vasander, H. Heterotrophic respiration in drained tropical peat is greatly affected by temperature—a passive ecosystem cooling experiment. *Environmental Research Letters* **9**, 105013 (2014).
30. Miettinen, J., Shi, C. and Liew, S.C. Land cover distribution in the peatlands of Peninsular Malaysia, Sumatra and Borneo in 2015 with changes since 1990. *Global Ecology and Conservation* **6**, 67-78 (2016).
31. Hoscilo, A., Page, S.E., Tansey, K.J. and Rieley, J.O. Effect of repeated fires on land-cover change on peatland in southern Central Kalimantan, Indonesia, from 1973 to 2005. *International Journal of Wildland Fire* **20**, 578-588 (2011).
32. Laurance W.F. Do edge effects occur over large spatial scales? *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* **15**, 134-135 (2000).
33. Cochrane, M.A. and Laurance, W.F. Fire as a large-scale edge effect in Amazonian forests. *Journal of Tropical Ecology* **18**, 311-325 (2002).
34. Laurance, W.F., Laurance, S.G. and Delamonica, P. Tropical forest fragmentation and greenhouse gas emissions. *Forest Ecology and Management* **110**, 173-180 (1998).
35. Curran, L.M., Caniago, I., Paoli, G.D., Astianti, D., Kusneti, M., Leighton, M., Nirarita, C.E. and Haeruman, H. Impact of El Nino and logging on canopy tree recruitment in Borneo. *Science* **286**, 2184-2188 (1999).
36. Chaplin-Kramer, R., Ramler, I., Sharp, R. *et al.* Degradation in carbon stocks near tropical forest edges. *Nature Communications* **6**, 10158 (2015).
37. Brinck, K., Fischer, R., Groeneveld, J., Lehmann, S., De Paula, M.D., Pütz, S., Sexton, J.O., Song, D. and Huth, A. High resolution analysis of tropical forest fragmentation and its impact on the global carbon cycle. *Nature Communications* **8**, 1-6 (2017).
38. Briant, G., Gond, V. and Laurance, S.G. Habitat fragmentation and the desiccation of forest canopies: a case study from eastern Amazonia. *Biological conservation* **143**, 2763-2769. (2010).
39. Didham, R.K. and Lawton, J.H. Edge structure determines the magnitude of changes in microclimate and vegetation structure in tropical forest fragments. *Biotropica* **31**, 17-30 (1999).
40. Hooijer, A., Page, S., Jauhiainen, J., Lee, W.A., Lu, X.X., Idris, A. and Anshari, G. Subsidence and carbon loss in drained tropical peatlands. *Biogeosciences* **9**, 1053 (2012)

41. Evans, C.D., Williamson, J.M., Kacaribu, F., Irawan, D., Suardiwerianto, Y., Hidayat, M.F., Laurén, A. and Page, S.E. Rates and spatial variability of peat subsidence in Acacia plantation and forest landscapes in Sumatra, Indonesia. *Geoderma*, **338**, 410-421 (2019).
42. Cattau, M.E., Harrison, M.E., Shinyo, I., Tungau, S., Uriarte, M. and DeFries, R. Sources of anthropogenic fire ignitions on the peat-swamp landscape in Kalimantan, Indonesia. *Global Environmental Change* **39**, 205-219 (2016).
43. Wooster, M.J., Perry, G.L.W. and Zoumas, A. Fire, drought and El Niño relationships on Borneo (Southeast Asia) in the pre-MODIS era (1980-2000). *Biogeosciences* **9**, (2012)
44. Spessa, A.C., Field, R.D., Pappenberger, F., Langner, A., Enghart, S., Weber, U., Stockdale, T., Siegert, F., Kaiser, J.W. and Moore, J. Seasonal forecasting of fire over Kalimantan, Indonesia. *Natural Hazards and Earth System Science* **15**, 429-442 (2015).
45. Field, R.D., Van Der Werf, G.R., Fanin, T., Fetzer, E.J., Fuller, R., Jethva, H., Levy, R., Livesey, N.J., Luo, M., Torres, O. and Worden, H.M. Indonesian fire activity and smoke pollution in 2015 show persistent nonlinear sensitivity to El Niño-induced drought. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* **113**, 9204-9209 (2016).
46. Pan, X., Chin, M., Ichoku, C.M. and Field, R.D. Connecting Indonesian fires and drought with the type of El Niño and phase of the Indian Ocean Dipole during 1979–2016. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres* **123**, 7974-7988 (2018).
47. Konecny, K., Ballhorn, U., Navratil, P., Jubanski, J., Page, S.E., Tansey, K., Hooijer, A., Vernimmen, R. and Siegert, F. Variable carbon losses from recurrent fires in drained tropical peatlands. *Global Change Biology* **22**, 1469-1480 (2016).
48. Miettinen, J., Hooijer, A., Vernimmen, R., Liew, S.C. and Page, S.E. From carbon sink to carbon source: extensive peat oxidation in insular Southeast Asia since 1990. *Environmental Research Letters* **12**, 024014 (2017).
49. Langner, A., Miettinen, J. and Siegert, F. Land cover change 2002–2005 in Borneo and the role of fire derived from MODIS imagery. *Global Change Biology* **13**, 2329-2340 (2007).
50. van der Werf, G.R., Dempewolf, J., Trigg, S.N., Randerson, J.T., Kasibhatla, P.S., Giglio, L., Murdiyarso, D., Peters, W., Morton, D.C., Collatz, G.J. and Dolman, A.J. Climate regulation of fire emissions and deforestation in equatorial Asia. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* **105**, 20350-20355 (2008).
51. Langner, A. and Siegert, F. Spatiotemporal fire occurrence in Borneo over a period of 10 years. *Global Change Biology* **15**, 48-62 (2009).
52. Tacconi, L. Preventing fires and haze in Southeast Asia. *Nature Climate Change* **6**, 640 (2016).
53. Wahyunto, R.S. and Suparto, S.H. Maps of area of peatland distribution and carbon content in Kalimantan, 2000–2002. *Wetlands International-Indonesia Programme & Wildlife Habitat Canada (WHC)* (2004).

54. Normile, D. Indonesia's fires are bad, but new measures prevented them from becoming worse. *Science Magazine*. <https://www.sciencemag.org/news/2019/10/indonesias-fires-are-bad-new-measures-prevented-them-becoming-worse> (2019).
55. Seymour, F. Indonesia Reduces Deforestation, Norway to Pay Up. World Resources Institute. <https://www.wri.org/blog/2019/02/indonesia-reduces-deforestation-norway-pay> (2019).
56. Haddad, N.M., Brudvig, L.A., Clobert, J., Davies, K.F., Gonzalez, A., Holt, R.D., Lovejoy, T.E., Sexton, J.O., Austin, M.P., Collins, C.D. and Cook, W.M. Habitat fragmentation and its lasting impact on Earth's ecosystems. *Science advances* **1**, 1500052 (2015).
57. Watson, J.E., Evans, T., Venter, O., Williams, B., Tulloch, A., Stewart, C., Thompson, I., Ray, J.C., Murray, K., Salazar, A. and McAlpine, C. The exceptional value of intact forest ecosystems. *Nature ecology & evolution* **2**, 599-610 (2018).
58. Gaveau, D.L., Salim, M.A., Hergoualc'h, K., Locatelli, B., Sloan, S., Wooster, M., Marlier, M.E., Molidena, E., Yaen, H., DeFries, R. and Verchot, L. Major atmospheric emissions from peat fires in Southeast Asia during non-drought years: evidence from the 2013 Sumatran fires. *Scientific reports* **4**, 6112 (2014).
59. Wooster, M., Gaveau, D., Salim, M., Zhang, T., Xu, W., Green, D., Huijnen, V., Murdiyarso, D., Gunawan, D., Borchard, N. and Schirrmann, M. New tropical peatland gas and particulate emissions factors indicate 2015 Indonesian fires released far more particulate matter (but less methane) than current inventories imply. *Remote Sensing* **10**, 495 (2018).
60. Taufik, M., Torfs, P.J., Uijlenhoet, R., Jones, P.D., Murdiyarso, D. and Van Lanen, H.A. Amplification of wildfire area burnt by hydrological drought in the humid tropics. *Nature Climate Change* **7**, 428-431 (2017).
61. Margono, B.A., Turubanova, S., Zhuravleva, I., Potapov, P., Tyukavina, A., Baccini, A., Goetz, S. and Hansen, M.C. Mapping and monitoring deforestation and forest degradation in Sumatra (Indonesia) using Landsat time series data sets from 1990 to 2010. *Environmental Research Letters* **7**, 034010 (2012).
62. Hansen, M.C., Potapov, P.V., Moore, R., Hancher, M., Turubanova, S.A., Tyukavina, A., Thau, D., Stehman, S.V., Goetz, S.J., Loveland, T.R. and Kommareddy, A. High-resolution global maps of 21st-century forest cover change. *Science*, **342**, 850-853 (2013).
63. Giglio, L., Schroeder, W. and Justice, C.O. The collection 6 MODIS active fire detection algorithm and fire products. *Remote Sensing of Environment* **178**, 31-41 (2016).
64. Lohberger, S., Stängel, M., Atwood, E.C. and Siegert, F. Spatial evaluation of Indonesia's 2015 fire-affected area and estimated carbon emissions using Sentinel-1. *Global change biology* **24**, 644-654 (2015).
65. Purnomo A. Protecting Indonesia's Forests, Pros-Cons Policy of Moratorium on Forests and Peatlands. Kepustakaan Populer Gramedia (KPG, Jakarta, Indonesia), (2012)
66. Purnomo, H., Shantiko, B., Sitorus, S., Gunawan, H., Achdiawan, R., Kartodihardjo, H. and Dewayani, A.A., Fire economy and actor network of forest and land fires in Indonesia. *Forest*

Policy and Economics, 78, 21-31 (2017).

Acknowledgments

This study forms part of the Towards a Fire Early Warning System for Indonesia (ToFEWSI) project, which is funded through the UK's National Environment Research Council – Newton Fund on behalf of UK Research & Innovation (NE/P014801/1) and Indonesia Endowment Fund for Education and the Indonesian Science Fund.

Author contributions

T.N. and A.S. designed the study with input from S.H.D. T.N. performed the analyses and wrote the initial paper. A.C.S, S.H.D., G.D.C. and S.M. contributed to interpreting the results and writing the final paper.

Corresponding author

Correspondence to Tadas Nikonovas at tadas.nik@gmail.com

<https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7045-9077>

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

561
562
563
564
565

Figure captions

Fig. 1: The remaining fire-resilient primary forests in Sumatra and Kalimantan.

Primary forest % cover the regions peatlands (orange through red) and non-peatlands % (green through blue) at the beginning of 2019. The categories shown are <99% primary forest cover, primary forest cover >99% but within 2 km from the forest edge, and primary forests cover >99% and further from the forest edge than 2 km.

Fig. 2: Changes in total primary forest cover in Sumatra and Kalimantan from 2001 through 2018

a) Annual primary forest cover loss in the region; and total primary forest cover at the beginning of 2001 and 2019 shown against total area of (b) peatlands and (c) non-peatlands.

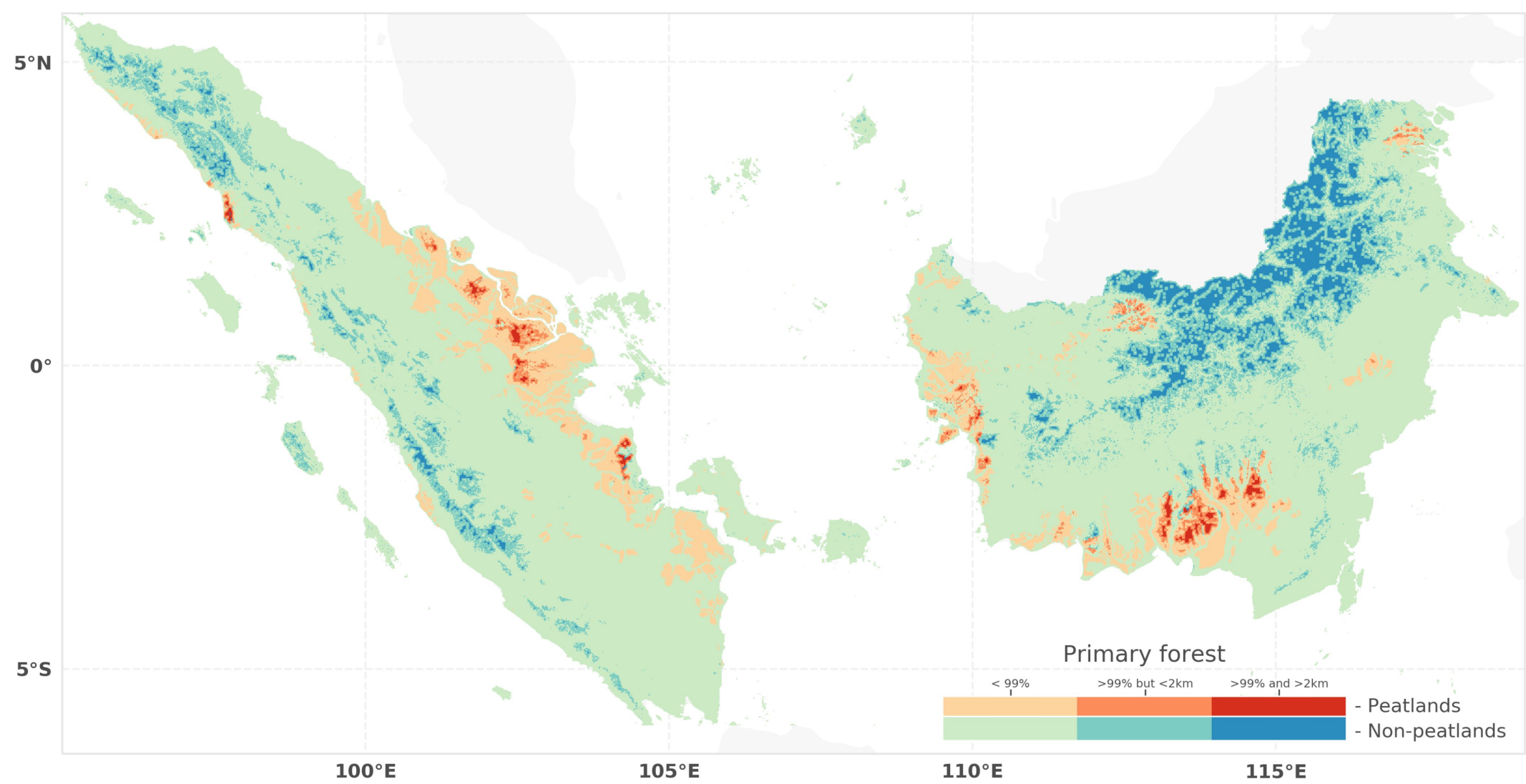
Fig. 3: Primary forest cover and fire occurrence in the region.

a) Monthly precipitation anomalies in the region for the study period (Methods). b, c) Change in extent and % of fire-affected grid cells for different primary forest cover percent categories in peatlands (b) and non-peatlands (c) of Sumatra and Kalimantan. The grey lines represent primary forest cover thresholds and indicate year to year changes in extent of areas covered by 1 km grid cells having primary forest cover of more than 99% (area to the left from the 99% threshold line), 99% to 50%, 50% to 1% and less than 1%. Colour indicates % of fire-affected grid cells. Primary forest cover estimates for each year represent the state at the beginning of the year. Forest loss estimate for that year is accounted for in the figure for the following year.

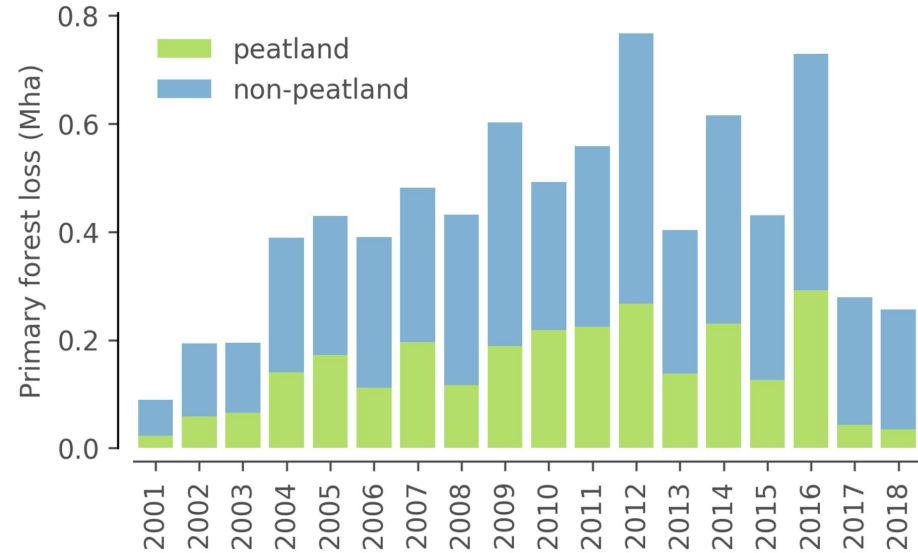
Fig. 4: Changes in forest cover and fire occurrence in areas which were >99% primary forests in the year 2002.

a) Monthly precipitation anomalies in the region for the study period (Methods). b, c) Change in extent and % of fire-affected grid cells. In contrast to Fig. 3, this Figure only shows (b) peatland and (c) non-peatland areas which were undisturbed primary forest (grid cells having 99% or more primary forest cover) at the beginning of year 2002. Solid grey lines indicate the primary forest cover percentage thresholds as in Fig. 3. Dashed grey lines represent distance from the forest edge

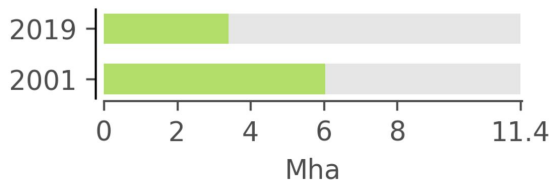
thresholds for the undisturbed forest category. Note different colour scales for peatland (b) and non-peatland (c) plots. See Supplementary Figures 1 – 4 showing the same analysis split into different sub-regions of Sumatra and Kalimantan.



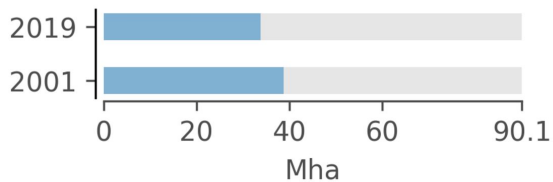
a) Primary forest loss in Sumatra and Kalimantan



b) Primary forest cover peatlands



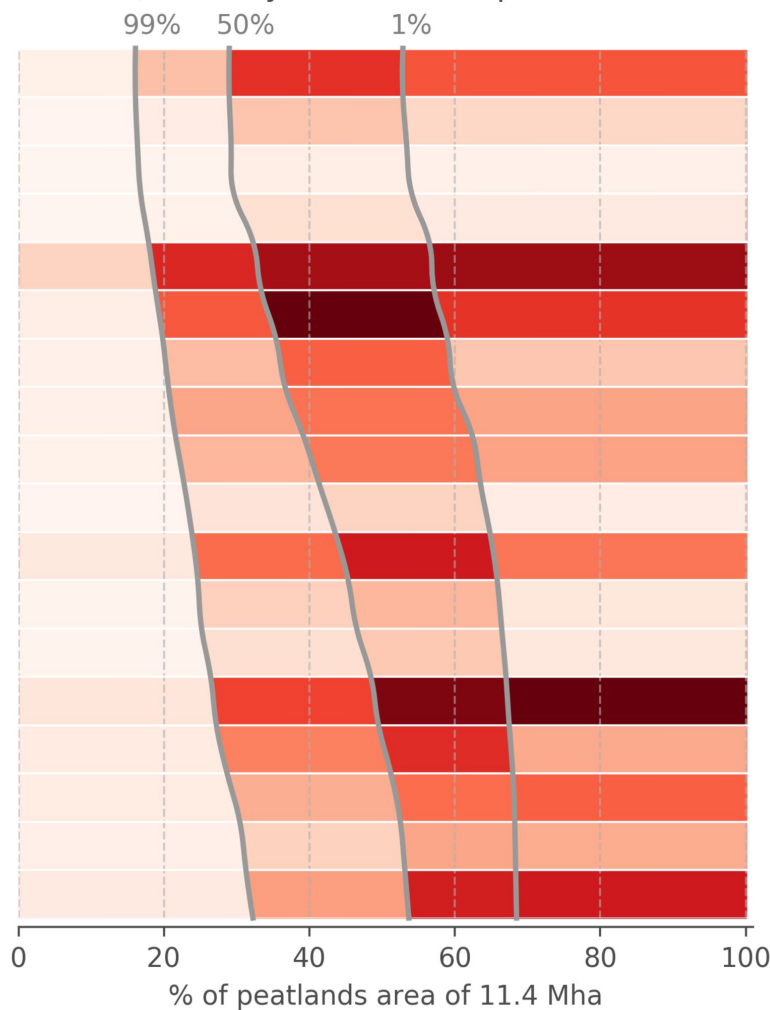
c) Primary forest cover non-peatlands



a) Prec. anom.



b) Primary forest cover peatlands



c) Primary forest cover non-peatlands

